



# Forum

## Methane in Association With Seismic Activity

It has been hypothesized that upward movement of vast quantities of methane gas from the earth's mantle is a causative agent of earthquakes [Gold, 1979]. Much of this hypothesis rests on accounts of flames and/or loud, booming noises ("brontides") accompanying seismic events, possibly caused by the explosive release of this "primordial" methane to the atmosphere [Cliftin-Chalton and MacDonald, 1978; Gold and Soter, 1979]. This speculation has generated much controversy because it implies a nonbiological origin for petroleum, as well as the presence of an abundant, potentially harvestable supply of energy in the mantle [e.g., Nature, 1982; Ear, 1983]. However, there is a paucity of experimental data to either support or contradict this hypothesis. Because of this continuing, unresolved controversy, I have decided to publish some observations made several years ago with respect to methane emanations during an earthquake that struck near Mammoth Lakes, Calif. [Orndorf, 1979]. It is of significance that this region lies in close proximity to Owens Valley where accounts exist of flames emanating from the ground during the 1872 earthquake [Cliftin-Chalton and MacDonald, 1978; Gold, 1979].

One possible test of Gold's hypothesis would be the demonstration that dramatic releases of methane frequently accompany seismic activity. Although it does not necessarily follow that methane released during seismic events is of primordial origin (e.g., biogenic or thermogenic methane entrapped near the surface could be released by strong earth movements), the consistent presence or absence of unusually large plumes of methane in association with earthquakes would either lend support to or contradict the hypothesis, respectively. An earthquake of 5.7 magnitude (Richter) struck about 30 km southeast of Mammoth Lakes, California, at 9:45 A.M. on October 4, 1978 (for details see Savage and Clark, [1982]). The depth of the epicenter was 13.6 km [R. Cokerman, personal communication, 1983]. The initial shock lasted several seconds, and a series of aftershocks of diminished intensity occurred for several hours thereafter. Eyewitnesses at Hot Creek, a geothermal stream having several fumaroles, reported the sudden release of large quantities of steam and gases at the time of the first shock. These emanations were of sufficient magnitude to panic the few bathers present, and park officials immediately closed the area. There were no observations of flames exiting the ground, because I had established a record of the methane content of some of the Hot Creek gas seeps 57 days prior to the earthquake, and because the creek was studied previously with respect to its chemistry and gaseous emanations [Mariner and Wiley, 1974]. It was possible to determine if any dramatic increase in the methane content of these geothermal gases occurred soon after the initial shock of this seismic event.

Table 1 lists the methane concentrations of two proximate gas seeps (A and B) and two large fumaroles (C and D). Seep A consisted of a slow trickle of bubbles (about 25 cm/min) emanating from warm sediments ( $50^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) located near the stream bank (water depth about 10 cm). Seep B was located about 1 m away in slightly deeper water (depth about 25 cm), had a faster gas flow rate (about 100 cm/min), and emanated from a more rocky bottom than seep A (sediment temperature =  $50^{\circ}\text{C}$  at 20 cm). Methane concentrations in the gases from both seeps were low and actually decreased somewhat with the arrival of the earthquake. These methane values are in agreement with the data of Mariner and Wiley [1974]. Fumaroles C and D were located about 50 and 75 m, respectively, away from seep A and on the opposite stream bank. Prior to the quake,

they were seeped and demonstrated minimal gas ebullition (they were not sampled). However, after the first shock and for several subsequent days they violently

TABLE 1. Methane Concentration in Gases from Hot Creek Seeps (A and B) and Fumaroles (C and D)

Site	Percent Methane in Gas Phases		
	Sept. 17, 1978	Oct. 4, 1978	Oct. 9, 1978
A	0.16	0.12	0.12
B	0.07	0.06	ND
C	ND	0.01	0.01
D	ND	0.01	0.01

Gases were collected by displacement of water in a capped net. The collected gases (50 cc) were next drawn up into a syringe, and the contents were injected into sealed, vented serum vials (volume = 3 cc). Analyses were performed within 3 hours of sample collection. Collection of gases on Oct. 4, 1978, were made within 3 hours after the first shock. Samples were analyzed on a Varian series 1400 flame ionization gas chromatograph equipped with a Porapak Q column (305  $\times$  0.64 mm; N<sub>2</sub> carrier flow = 30 cm/min). Limit of detection was about 0.0003%. ND = not determined.

extruded gas bubbles and silt. Fumarole C even spawned a 8 m high water geyser as a consequence of the earthquake. Therefore, new materials were brought to the surface; however, the methane content of gases emanating from these hot fumaroles (water temperature =  $89^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) was about an order of magnitude lower than that of the bubbles exiting the cooler seeps (Table 1). None of the gases collected was combustible.

The higher methane concentrations of the gases at seeps A and B were due to the presence of methanogenic bacteria in the warm and reducing sediments (they had an H<sub>2</sub>S odor) surrounding the seeps. Thermophilic methanogenic activity is a common occurrence in hot springs [e.g., Ward, 1978], and anaerobic incubation of sediments taken near the seeps demonstrated abundant biological methane production at  $62^{\circ}\text{C}$  (Figure 1). Methanogenesis was blocked by addition of chloroform (Figure 1), an inhibitor of methanogenic

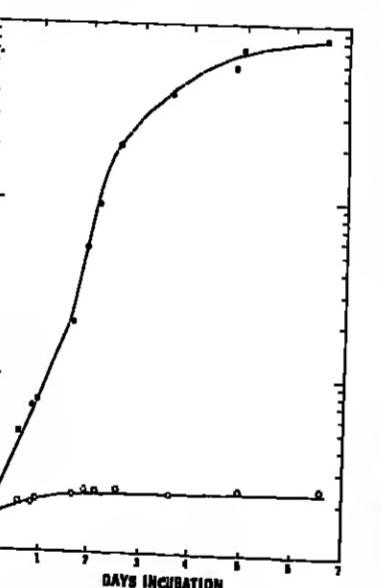


Fig. 1. Methanogenesis in Hot Creek sediments incubated statically in the dark at  $62^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Sediments were collected with a plastic core (upper 5 cm of sediment) from a warm ( $54^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) fumarole located near seeps A and B; 50 cc of sediment were placed into 250 cc Erlenmeyer flasks that contained 75 ml of fumarole water. Flasks were gassed with N<sub>2</sub> for 5 min and then sealed with black rubber stoppers. Open circles, flask containing 0.1 ml of chloroform; closed circles, uninhibited flask. Final methane levels achieved in the uninhibited flask (412  $\mu\text{moles}$ ) corresponds to about 8% of the gas phase volume. Addition of 50 cc of H<sub>2</sub> to another uninhibited flask caused an immediate, seventeenfold stimulation of methane production rates (data not shown).

### Articles (cont. from p. 409)

Also recognizing that improved satellite techniques can resolve many small-scale oceanographic problems, we recommend the development of spare instrumentation with at least an order of magnitude improvement in accuracy and the incorporation in the space systems of ancillary instruments to measure such phenomena as sea state, sea surface temperature, ice, salinity, and color, and further recommend that these space programs be undertaken on regional and global scales on a continuous basis.

Finally, recognizing the need for additional surface and subsurface measurements in solving oceanographic and geological problems, we recommend that an ocean monitoring system and data han-

dling facility be developed and implemented concurrently with the satellite system.

**Tsunamis**

To improve the reliability of tsunami prediction, we recommend development of a deep-water system to measure tsunami wave height in real time. This system would provide a supplemental parameter to the tsunami warning system and would be of immense use if a failure of the tide gauge systems occurs, as it did in the December 1979 tsunami.

### Conclusion

After the technical recommendations, the panel urged that a study be made to lowest the economic benefit-to-cost ratio for

bacteria [Bruckner, 1967], and, in addition, methane production rates were stimulated seventeenfold by addition of hydrogen to the sediments (data not shown). The high temperatures at fumaroles C and D exceed the physiological range of most thermophilic methanogens [Zeikus and Wolfe, 1972; Ward, 1978], and therefore the lower methane content of the fumarole gases was probably a consequence of these organisms being absent from those environments. Further evidence for the active presence of methanogenic bacteria near the seeps but not the fumaroles can be inferred from the presence of traces of hydrogen in the fumarole gases (0.03–0.07%) but not in the seep gases. Hydrogen is commonly associated with geothermal gases [Lyon, 1974], and because it is a common substrate of methanogenic bacteria, it would be removed from gases that transit sediments harboring an active flora of these organisms.

It is therefore evident that increases in the methane content of geothermal gases did not accompany this earthquake and that methane remained a minor component of the gases. Furthermore, increases of methane were not observed during a 1974 eruption of the Kilauea volcano in Hawaii, and concentrations in collected gases remained below 1.4 ppm (R. Lamontagne, personal communication, 1983). It has been argued that one might not observe liberation of methane in volcanic regions if mineral-catalyzed oxidation of methane to carbon dioxide occurred [Gold, 1979]. However, experimental evidence does not support this contention [Sackell and Ghing, 1979]. Furthermore, the oxidation reaction envisaged would have to operate at near 100% efficiency to account for the low methane values observed in Hot Creek and Kilauea, a feat that is difficult to achieve for a vast volume of methane quickly transiting a hot mineral region during an earthquake. Finally, as noted at the outset, Hot Creek lies in proximity to the region where accounts of flames escaping the earth were recorded during the Owens Valley earthquake of 1872 and were cited as supportive evidence for the methane "deep gas" hypothesis [Gold, 1979].

It should be noted, however, that methane can be an abundant component (i.e., >40%) of the gases of mud volcanoes [Reitsema, 1979]. In addition, significant levels of methane (about 2.5%) were observed in some of the gases collected during a 1977 Kilauea eruption [Graeber et al., 1979]. In both cases, however, the investigators were able to attribute the source of the methane to pyrolysis of buried organic matter. I have observed a high methane content (about 11%) in gases exiting the mud-flow debris region on Mount St. Helens. However, the presence of both ethane and propane in the gas as well as the fact that the site was located in top of 600 feet of hot, recently buried organic-rich debris lends further credence to a shallow pyrolytic origin (with perhaps a biogenic contribution as well) for the methane rather than a deep "primordial" one [R. S. Orenlund, unpublished data, 1983].

The observations presented in this report contradict the methane "deep gas" hypothesis of Gold [1979]. It must be stressed that any gases released during seismic events or along rift zones may become relatively enriched in methane because of contributions made by liberator pockets of ancient or recent methane entrapped within the crust. This gas may have been formed by biogenic (as in the case of Hot Creek) or thermogenic mechanisms occurring within the crust. Thus, observations of isotopically heavy methane ( $^{13}\text{CH}_4 = -20$  to  $-15$  per mil) in association with plumes of  $^3\text{He}$  emanating from geothermal regions [Welhan and Craig, 1979; Cutolo, 1980; Lupton and Craig, 1981; Welhan et al., 1981] does not prove that a mantle origin for the methane because the gas may have been "stripped" out of the crust with upward movement of  $^3\text{He}$ . Furthermore, identification of sources of methane that are based primarily on carbon isotopic composition of the gas can be clouded by the activities of methylotrophic bacteria which can enhance the  $^{13}\text{C}$  component of the methane [Silverman and Oyama, 1968; Barker and Fritz, 1981; Coleman et al., 1981]

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each specific recommendation, and concluded with the following proposal:

Since marine geodetic programs are distributed within several federal agencies, which due to duplication of programs waste user's time to locate a right agency for obtaining information, we strongly recommend that a dynamic group be formed to conduct marine geodetic program direction; this group should be within one federal agency and responsive to all ocean applications programs. This group should be advised by all segments of the involved scientific and user community in the tradition of the Office of Naval Research and the National Aeronautical and Space Administra-

tion, and give it a thermogenic character. Sediment, when used to identify sources of "primordial" methane, should be interpreted with caution.

**Acknowledgments.** I wish to thank I. Larivée, K. Kværnølden, D. DesMarais, R. Lamontagne, D. Rayleigh, and G. Eggington for helpful discussions with respect to this manuscript.

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Cover. Large gas and ash eruption of Sakurajima Volcano near Kagoshima in Kyushu, Japan, on September 18, 1981. A series of powerful eruptions that day produced extensive ash fall and measured flux of SO<sub>2</sub> of greater than 11,000 tons per day. Sakurajima has been almost continuously active since 1966; extensive measures have been taken to monitor its activity and preparations made for rapid evacuation of local residents. (Photograph courtesy of Stanley N. Williams, Department of Earth Sciences, Dartmouth College, Hanover, N.H.)

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# News

## Volcanic Sulfur Dynamics

Gaseous sulfur in the aerosol clouds produced by the eruptions of Mount St. Helens and El Chichón is the current focus of research on the effects of matter injected into the atmosphere by volcanoes. Recent research shows that new particles of sulfuric acid are formed up to 3 months after an eruption and that these particles can continue to grow for more than half a year following an eruption. These sulfuric acid particles may alter the earth's climate by interfering with the transmission of radiation from the sun into the lower atmosphere and of infrared radiation from earth back to space. Furthermore, evidence published last month claims that sulfur emissions during noneruptive phases may be the main source of volcanic sulfur in the atmosphere.

Sulfuric acid (H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>) is the product that directly interferes with solar radiation. The amount of atmospheric H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> formed from an injection of sulfur is a function of the sulfur's residence time in the atmosphere and the oxidation and hydration rates it undergoes there.

Although the exact conversion rate of sulfur to sulfuric acid is still under investigation, it is more rapid in the stratosphere than in the troposphere because of higher photochemical activity caused by stronger solar radiation at that level of the atmosphere. The oxidation process leading from sulfur to sulfur trioxide (SO, SO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>3</sub>) and the subsequent hydration to H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> varies with the availability of water vapor, which fluctuates in different regions over the earth. (Most volcanic sulfur is injected into the atmosphere as sulfur dioxide.)

In 1981, A. S. Kabanov and S. S. Khmelevskiy, of the Experimental Meteorology Institute in the USSR, speculated on the mechanism of sulfur aerosol formation in the stratosphere. They proposed that droplets grow when sulfuric acid molecules adhere to existing water droplets, forming stratospheric water vapor passes into the liquid phase.

By virtue of vertical mixing and water precipitation, the troposphere is cleansed of sulfur products much more quickly than the stratosphere. The residence time of sulfur products is measured in days to weeks in the troposphere, whereas it is 1–3 years in the stratosphere.

D. J. Hoffmann and J. M. Rosen, reporting in *Geophysical Research Letters* in April 1983 on the amount and mass of sulfuric acid aerosol produced by El Chichón, concluded that new particles of sulfuric acid were formed for about 3 months after the eruption. When particle formation ceased, though, particle growth was evident 7 months after the eruption.

Their observations, made with three balloon-borne optical particle counters, revealed two layers of aerosol particles in the stratosphere. The higher layer, located at 85 km, consisted of 80% sulfuric acid, while the lower layer, hovering around 18 km, consisted of 60–65% sulfuric acid, estimate by the University of Wyoming scientists. Data also indicated possible partial depletion of water at 26 km because of the conversion of gaseous sulfur to sulfuric acid.

Foremost among the instruments used to measure aerosol dispersion is the light detection and ranging (LIDAR) remote sensing system. The device operates by shining light into space. Backscattering of the

**News (cont. from p. 11)**

tracts, each valued at \$20 million, were awarded to Raytheon Co. of Weymouth, Mass., and to Sperry Corp. of Great Neck, N.Y., according to the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA).

The contract awards represent the second of four phases in the 10-year process of the development and deployment of a national weather radar system to replace existing aging units. One of the companies will be selected in late 1986 for a contract for limited production of the radar units. Full production and installation of the first operational units are expected by early 1988.

NEXRAD is a joint effort of the Commerce, Defense, and Transportation departments to develop an advanced radar with Doppler capabilities that meet the needs of NOAA's National Weather Service, the Federal Aviation Administration, and the U.S. military.

**Geophysicists**

The following AGU members were recently elected in membership in the National Academy of Sciences: Thomas M. Donahue, chairman of the department of atmospheric and oceanic science at the University of Michigan; Wilford R. Gardner, chairman of soils, water, and engineering at the University of Arizona; Stanley R. Hart, professor of geochemistry at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology; Jerome Namias, resident meteorologist at the Scripps Institution of Oceanography; and Norman F. Ness, chief of the laboratory for extraterrestrial physics at NASA's Goddard Space Flight Center. In addition, Ikuo Kashio, a staff member at the Carnegie Institution of Washington's Geophysical Laboratory and professor of geology at the University of Tokyo, was elected a foreign associate of the Academy. William A. Newberg, director of the Scripps Institution of Oceanography, was elected to the National Academy of Engineering. He was cited for outstanding engineering and scientific contributions in the field of oceanography, with particular application to deep ocean operations.

Wallace Broecker, at the Lamont-Doherty Geological Observatory, Warren Hamilton, at the U.S. Geological Survey, and Patrick Harry, at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, were elected honorary members of the Geological Society of London.

Cedric Bruneau, chairman of the University of Miami's geography department and director of the undergraduate marine science pro-

gram, has been awarded the Vega Medal by the Swedish Geographic Society in recognition of his isotopic analysis of deep-sea sediments that he used to study the ice ages. Previous recipients include oceanographer H. U. Sverdrup (1930) and geophysicist Maurice Ewing (1963).

Holla D. Hedberg, Princeton University emeritus professor of geology, received the American Geological Institute's Medal in Honor of Ian Campbell. The medal is awarded annually to scientists whose careers are comparable to Campbell, who taught geology at the California Institute of Technology from 1951-1959, and then became California's state geologist. Campbell, AGI president in 1961, died in 1978.

Ian MacGregor has been appointed deputy director of the National Science Foundation's Division of Earth Sciences. He had been chief scientist in the Office of Scientific Ocean Drilling.

Albert Rango has been appointed chief of the Hydrology Laboratory at the Department of Agriculture's Agricultural Research Service in Beltsville, Md. The major research objectives of the laboratory are applying remote sensing to hydrology and water resources, investigating climate variability and its impact on soil moisture, and applying hydrological modeling to large areas and to pollution from

impound sources. A 10-year veteran of NASA's Goddard Space Flight Center, he was most recently head of Goddard's Hydrological Sciences Branch.

Henry Spall has been appointed associate chief of the Office of Scientific Publications at the U.S. Geological Survey National Center Reston, Va.

**In Memoriam**

Jacob Otnes, national correspondent for Norway to the International Association of Hydrological Sciences (IAHS) and director of the Norwegian Hydrological Service, died January 17, 1983. A member of the Hydrology section, he joined AGU in 1961.

Leon Tison, Secretary General of the IAG from 1948 to 1970 and the recipient of the first International Hydrology Prize in 1981, died on December 25, 1982.

Opportunities for Graduate Studies in the Atmospheric Sciences at the Georgia Institute of Technology. Openings are available for outstanding individuals holding an M.S. or Ph.D. degree in graduate studies in the atmospheric sciences. For qualified applicants, these positions include 1/2-time research assistantships with starting salaries ranging from \$7,000 to \$12,000/12 months depending on the degree being sought and the student's qualifications. All tuition and fees are also covered by the award.

The Atmospheric Sciences Program at Georgia Tech is uniquely structured academically in that major emphasis is given to three areas of atmospheric sciences, namely, Dynamic Meteorology, Physical Meteorology, and Atmospheric Chemistry. Major research efforts in which students are involved include studies in wind and solar power, atmospheric air pollution, uses of satellite imagery, measurements of aerosols in the atmosphere, modeling of planetary circulations, mesoscale and boundary layer dynamics, development of laser instrumentation for the detection of atmospheric aerosols and gases, global measurements of atmospheric species, photochemical and magnetic studies of atmospheric transformations, studies of biogeochemical cycles, and one-, two-, and three-dimensional chemical and dynamic modeling of the troposphere and stratosphere.

Students interested in being involved in these or other exciting Atmospheric Science projects at Georgia Tech should write for information to:

Dr. Douglas D. Davis  
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Faculty Position for HREM Specialists/Arizona State University. A tenure-track faculty position as an assistant or assistant professor level is available at Arizona State University. An electron microscopist/electron microscopist specialist will work with the ASU Facility for High Resolution Electron Microscopy within the Center for Solid State Science.

The appointee will hold academic rank and will teach within the university department appropriate to his/her expertise. Qualifications include a doctoral degree in an appropriate area of science, a record of achievement in publication, and knowledge of related techniques such as microanalysis and microdiffraction. It is expected that the appointee will institute an active research program in electron microscopy or its applications in some area of solid state science using the instrumentation of the facility and will serve as an advisor to graduate students.

Send resume and name of three references for three letters of recommendation to: J.M. Conley, Center for Solid State Science, Arizona State University, Tempe, AZ 85287, before August 20, 1983.

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Hydrogeologist. Converse Consultants is seeking a staff or project level hydrogeologist for investigations involving groundwater quality and supply, waste disposal, mineral and energy development, and geotechnical projects. Las Vegas-based, will send resume and name of three references to: The ASU Facility for High Resolution Electron Microscopy within the Center for Solid State Science.

The appointee will hold academic rank and will teach within the university department appropriate to his/her expertise. Qualifications include a doctoral degree in an appropriate area of science, a record of achievement in publication, and knowledge of related techniques such as microanalysis and microdiffraction. It is expected that the appointee will institute an active research program in electron microscopy or its applications in some area of solid state science using the instrumentation of the facility and will serve as an advisor to graduate students.

Send resume and name of three references for three letters of recommendation to: J.M. Conley, Center for Solid State Science, Arizona State University, Tempe, AZ 85287, before August 20, 1983.

Arizona State University is an equal opportunity/affirmative action employer.

Faculty Position for Geodesy Specialist/Arizona State University. A tenure-track faculty position as an assistant or assistant professor level is available at Arizona State University. An electron microscopist/electron microscopist specialist will work with the ASU Facility for High Resolution Electron Microscopy within the Center for Solid State Science.

The appointee will hold academic rank and will teach within the university department appropriate to his/her expertise. Qualifications include a doctoral degree plus two to five years experience involving such areas as seismometer testing and modeling, well and field design, quantitative evaluation of ground motion, and interpretation of seismic waves. Good communication skills are essential. Additional training or experience in geophysics and hydrology is desirable. Contact Dr. Robert F. Kaufmann, Prinicipal Geologist, Converse Consultants, Inc., 4035 S. Spencer Street, Suite 120, Las Vegas, NV 89109.

Howard University/Graduate Faculty Position. The Department of Geodesy and Geophysics invites applications for a tenure-track position in geodesy at rank of assistant or associate professor beginning August 1983. Position involves development of graduate research program or Master's level. Desired specialization includes environmental geochemistry, geochronology, isotope geology. Send letter of application, resume and names of three references to: Dr. David Schwartzman, Department of Geodesy and Geophysics, Howard University, Washington, D.C. 20059.

**STUDENT OPPORTUNITIES**

Graduate Assistantships/Harvard University.

Howard University in Washington, D.C., offers a new graduate program for the M.S. degree in geodesy, made possible by a grant from Gulf Oil Company. Areas of specialization are field geodesy, geophysics, geochemistry, and meteorology/hydrology with remote sensing. Some stipends and assistantships are available. Potential students should write to Dr. Eric Christensen, Department of Geodesy and Geophysics, Howard University, Washington, D.C. 20059.

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**AGU****1983 VGP Award Nominations**

the receipt of other awards, this change is not a restriction on the award. The award may be given to as many as five or as few as zero individuals in any calendar year. Multiple awards may either be shared or separate, as appropriate.

Nominations for the VGP Award may be made by any member of AGU. Each nomination must be accompanied by a written statement of the basis for the nomination. Copies of the contributions for which the person is nominated should accompany the nomination statement if appropriate.

Nominations should be sent to the VGP President (Joseph V. Smith, Department of Geophysical Sciences, University of Chicago, Chicago, IL 60637), or the VGP President-Elect (G. Brent Dalrymple, U.S. Geological Survey, 345 Middlefield Road, MS 19, Menlo Park, CA 94025), or the VGP Secretary (Peter Lipman, U.S. Geological Survey, Denver Federal Center, MS 303, Denver, CO 80225) for forwarding to the Selection Committee.

**Meetings**

**Announcements****Flood Risk**

A session on Flood Risk will be held at the AGU Fall Meeting in San Francisco, December 10, 1983.

During the last 5 years, research has produced many new and improved statistical techniques for estimating flood risk and various quantities of the flood-flow distribution at gauged sites. This session will review these new ideas as well as review *Bulletin 17*, as was reviewed in September 1981.

Topics should include advantages of regionalization, regional skewness, empirical Gumbel estimators, probability weighted moments and the Wakeby distribution, measurement error and its impact, nonparametric procedures, and the use of historical flooding information. A companion session in the afternoon will examine the search for more physically based, extreme-value models in hydrology. The day will close with a special panel discussion chaired by John Schinckle, Jr.

Mail one copy of your abstract to Jerry R. Stedinger (Hollister Hall, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY 14853), the morning session organizer, by August 15, 1983, and the original and two copies of the abstract to AGU by September 14.

**Geophysical Year****New Listings**

The complete Geophysical Year last appeared in the May 31, 1983, issue. A boldface meeting title indicates sponsor or co-sponsorship by AGU.

Jan. 16-21, 1984. Penrose Conference on the Evolution of the Central Atlantic Ocean and Its Continental Margins, Géens, France. (J. Souy, Laboratoire de Géologie Dynamique, LA GNRS no. 132, Faculté des Sciences de Saint Jérôme, 13397, Marseille Cedex 19, France; telephone: (01) 98 90 10, ext. 510.)

May 28-June 3, 1984. 12th International Congress on Irrigation and Drainage, Fort Collins, Colo. Sponsor: the U.S. Committee on Irrigation, Drainage, and Flood Control. (U.S. Committee on Irrigation, Drainage and Flood Control, P.O. Box 15326, Denver, CO 80251.)

July 19-25, 1984. Symposium on Wave Breaking, Turbulent Mixing, and Radio Probing of the Ocean Surface, Sendai, Japan. (O. M. Phillips, Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD 21218; telephone: 301-338-7054.)

**Books****AGU New Books**

*The Scientist and Engineer in Court*  
M. D. Bradley, 116 pp., softbound, \$30. AGU members: \$30; others: \$14.

With increasing frequency, scientists and engineers are called to serve as expert witnesses in court, yet few know their duties and fewer still know the procedures in a lawsuit. Many experts find the courtroom confusing, with proceedings that seem arcane and decisions that seem strange or even illegal. Outliers are easily lost in the ceremony and drama of a lawsuit, especially if their expertise prepares them to deal more with facts than with values, with collaboration instead of advocacy, and with outliers rather than settlements. Expert witnesses need preparation to understand what happens in lawsuits and to whom and why it happens.

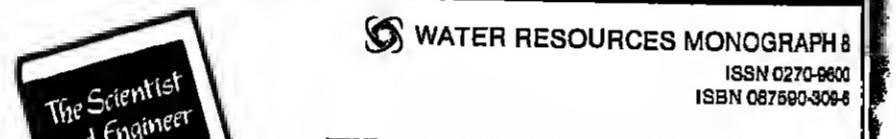
Today courts are settling disputes with significant technical and scientific components and need expert witnesses to analyze scientific information. An expert's testimony helps a court accept scientific and technical information, prunes it for its substantive worth, and form it into a legal decision. But the expert needs more than technical skills. In order to function effectively as an expert witness, he also needs to understand the hidden dimensions of courtroom interactions, the tactics developed by lawyers in an adversarial proceeding, and the use of technical facts in legal decision making. Scientists and engineers can no longer afford the luxury of ignorance about the judicial process.

This volume clarifies the elements of a lawsuit, defines common legal terms, and offers a guide to the courtroom drama. Assuming that experts wish to be knowledgeable about the trial, it explains which evidence is admissible, the tactics of cross examination, and the

need for effective communication with the judge or jury. It deals with the practical aspects of courtroom appearance and the calculation of witness fees. And it encourages experts to understand their role as learners in an evolving legal system. The message is simple: "Scientists have knowledge that courts find useful when deciding lawsuits; therefore, scientists should testify when asked as expert witnesses in court." By adding knowledge of the courtroom proceeding to an established technical or scientific expertise, the expert becomes a more valuable and effective witness.

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**The Scientist and Engineer in Court**

Michael D. Bradley (1983)

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With increasing frequency scientists and engineers serve the courts as expert witnesses; yet few know the duties of their role and fewer still know the procedures in a lawsuit.

To the scientist and engineer courtroom proceedings can seem arcane and complex, preparation is needed to understand the judicial process.

Michael Bradley writes from personal experience to familiarize the newcomer to the courtroom drama with the 'actors' and 'actions' of legal jargon, cross-examination, procedures, and more.

Though the examples are taken from the fields of hydrology and water law, the information is pertinent to all professionals who may be called to serve as an expert witness.

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